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ABSTRACT

Analyzed were the responses of 56 behaviorally disordered and 56 normal adolescents (either 13 or 15 years old) on a masculinity/femininity scale and a questionnaire of sex role stereotypes. Administered were the Masculinity-Femininity Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the sex role stereotype questionnaire developed by P. Rosenkrantz, and an adaptation of the Rosenkrantz questionnaire for use with younger children. Results indicated that the behaviorally disordered males saw themselves as less masculine than normal males, while the behavior disordered females saw themselves as more feminine than normal females. Normal Ss, both male and female, exhibited a higher degree of stereotyping than did behavior disordered Ss. (DB)

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A COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSES OF BEHAVIOR
DISORDERED AND NORMAL ADOLESCENTS ON A
MASCULINITY-FEMININITY SCALE AND ON A
STEREOTYPING QUESTIONNAIRE

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Linda Altholtz Bernknopf

The purpose of this study was to examine specific differences between 13 year old and 15 year old boys and girls labelled behavior disordered and emotionally normal adolescents. Specifically, the objectives of this study were:

- 1) to compare these groups for masculinity-femininity with regard to age and sex;
- 2) to compare these groups for acceptance of sex-role stereotyping with regard to age and sex;
- 3) to determine if a relationship exists between masculinity-femininity and acceptance of sex-role stereotyping for both groups with regard to age and sex.

Introduction

Glidewell and Swallow (1968) reported that as many as 30 percent of youth showed at least some mild adjustment problems. Most of these children were males. Additional studies indicate that maladjustment of females rises steadily from childhood to adulthood while the maladjustment of males steadily decreases (Rosen, Lahn & Kramer, 1964; U. S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare, 1965).

A number of different reasons have been cited for much of the maladjustment. Some have focused on identification: e.g., lack of identification with the same-sexed parent (Gray, 1959); lack of identification with the parent possessing the sex stereotyped traits (Rychiak and Legarski, 1966) or pressures on children to conform to sex-roles (Brown, 1956, 1957). The research has centered on young children (Mussen and Distler, 1960; Vroegh, 1967) or young adults (Heilbrun, 1963). Adolescents have generally been ignored. Considering the lack of research with adolescents in the area of acceptance of sex-role stereotyping and sexual identification, a comparison of a maladjusted group and a normal group for these variables by sex and age was seen as an essential and useful task.

Past research has been given a new impetus by the burgeoning feminist movement. No longer is it only the psychologist and sociologist who are concerned with the consequences of pressure to conform to traditional sex-roles. Parents, teachers and society have also become concerned with sex-typed behaviors, "behaviors that typically elicit different rewards for one sex than for the other (Mischel, 1966, p. 56)." Attention is again being directed to previous research such as that of Brown (1958). His study indicated that boys were pressured more to conform to socially accepted sex-typed behaviors than were girls. The consequences of these pressures have been studied by Gray (1957), Webb (1963) and Hartley (1959). The pressures of sex-role conformity have been determined to have a direct relationship upon the maladjustment of young adult females (Heilbrun, 1963). Hartley (1959) found evidence of unusually high amounts of anxiety in boys. Hartley attributed the anxiety to the pressures exerted on the male

child for masculine behavior. Sex-role stereotyping or sexism, as it is often referred to, severely limits and defines the lives of boys and girls from the time they are just toddlers (Komisar, 1971).

The psychological damage caused by sexism is more subtle but just as harmful as the outright discrimination it promotes. One of the most difficult problems for girls--and boys--is living up to the stereotyped ideals of femininity or masculinity the sex-role system has fostered (Komisar, 1971, p. 11).

Therefore, it would appear that a reduction of stereotyping should be a goal towards developing psychologically healthier persons.

Sex-role stereotyping is related to the concepts of masculinity and femininity. The association is quite simple. When discussing masculinity-femininity, one's maleness and femaleness is the concern. When discussing stereotyping, the manner in which one is conforming to the male or female aspect of a role is the concern. In examining relationships between adjustment and masculinity-femininity, Vroegh (1968) found that young boys who scored higher in masculinity and young girls who scored higher in femininity were generally seen as more socially adjusted than their counterparts. As the children grow older, there appears to be a higher degree of anxiety in females scoring high in femininity (Heilbrun, 1963; Gray, 1957).

Most of the studies to date have taken samples of children and young adults in regular classes. The subjects have been assessed as to degree of maladjustment and amount of anxiety. The present study will look at a group of previously diagnosed maladjusted youth and a group of youth in regular class situations. The study will then seek to discover what relationships may be found among masculinity, femininity, sex-role stereotyping and group, age, and sex.

Methodology

Instruments

Two instruments were used in the study to gather data: the Masculinity-Femininity (M-F) Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality (MMPI) and an adaptation of a sex-role stereotyping questionnaire developed by Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) and later adapted by Baruch (1973).

M-F Scale

The MF', MF₃, MF₄, and MF₅ of the MMPI were used. Four questions from this group was eliminated because they were deemed inappropriate for this age group by the school administrators. The scale as used appears in Appendix A.

The subscales of the MMPI were originally standardized on a population 16 years of age and older. The sample used in the present study differed in age by one to three years. However, the scores obtained from the present study were not considered in the context of the scores obtained in the original standardization. Rather scores were used to make between and within group comparisons. For this reason, it was considered that the questions from the M-F scale could be used.

The reliability estimates of the M-F scales of the MMPI, using a test-retest correlation, has been determined to range from .30 (Hathaway and Manachesi, 1957) for high school females to .89 (MacDonald, 1952) for female nursing students. Responses were recorded by subjects responding true or false to each item.

The stereotyping questionnaire was used twice; the first time it was used to assess male stereotyping for all students; the second time it was used to assess female stereotyping for all students. (Appendix B).

The content validity of the stereotyping questionnaire was established by Rosenkrantz et al. in three distinct steps. First, 100 men and women enrolled in undergraduate psychology classes were asked to list all the characteristics, attributes and behaviors on which they thought men and women differed. From this list, Rosenkrantz et al. selected all the items which occurred at least two times. These items were then placed on a bipolar Likert scale.

Second, the questionnaires, containing 122 items were then given to men and women samples with instructions to indicate the extent to which each item characterized adult men or women. The items on which at least 75 percent agreement existed among the sample of each sex were termed stereotypic. As a result, the 122 items were reduced to 41 items.

Correlated t tests were computed between the masculinity responses and the femininity responses to further examine the extent of the perceived differences. For all 41 items, the difference between the two responses was significant at $p < .001$ for both men and women.

The third step in establishing content validity consisted of factor analyzing the entire scale. This analysis produced two factors which corresponded to the masculine and feminine items. The two factors accounted for 61 percent of the variance: items for which the male is more socially desirable versus items for which the female is more socially desirable. The items consisted of two domains: male-valued items and female-valued items.

Subjects

The subjects were divided into two groups, behavior disordered and normal. Figure 1 pictorially presents the sample selection. The behavior disordered group consisted of 28 13 year old boys and girls and 28 15 year old boys and girls in a special school for adolescents with behavior disorders in Nassau County, New York. Because of the difficulty encountered in obtaining a large enough random sample of adolescents with similar background, the sample was limited to the adolescents in this one school. Only adolescents who had behavior disorders as their primary referring problem were used. The group of normal subjects were from regular classes in the public schools in Nassau County, New York. The investigator was given one school in which subjects could be used. The selection of classes was made on a random basis from all homeroom classes.

Subjects were told by their own teachers that research was being done by the investigator for a college course. They were told that the investigator was interested in finding out how they felt about certain things. All subjects participated on a voluntary basis.

Baruch adapted the questionnaire for use with children as young as the fifth grade. Although an example of the adaptation was available there were no available statistics. The Baruch adaptation was used by the investigator with a slight change in the marking procedure. Rather than marking the same questionnaire for both stereotyping questions (as in the Baruch adaptation), this investigator had subjects mark two separate questionnaires. This was done to ensure each question was marked on its own merit, rather than how it was marked under the previous stimulus conditions.

Subjects in the present study responded by circling a number from one to seven on a Likert-type scale. The ends of the scale were represented by statements opposite in nature (i.e., not at all aggressive, very aggressive). Subjects were asked to indicate to which end they felt men or women (depending on the stimulus) were most like.

Procedure

Students were each handed a folder which contained three questionnaires in the following order: the stereotyping questionnaire, the M-F scale and a second stereotyping questionnaire. The stereotyping questionnaire was administered twice: the first time for how the subjects perceived males and the second time for how the subjects perceived females.

The group of behavior disordered adolescents was administered the questionnaires in groups of ten by their own teachers. Groups of ten were chosen because it was felt ten was the maximum number of children that could be adequately tested at one time. In addition, ten was the mean number of students in class groupings. The group of adolescents in regular classes was administered the questionnaires in groups of approximately 30, also by their own teachers. Thirty was chosen because this number was the mean number of students in class groupings.

Instructions were read to the groups by their teachers. Teachers also checked to be sure each student marked the correct questionnaire. Students' names were omitted on the questionnaires to assure students that responses would be completely anonymous and confidential. Subjects were asked only to fill in their age, sex, grade and school for coding

purposes. The teachers then proceeded to read each question aloud twice while the students followed along on their questionnaires. This was done to ensure that students did not misread questions. In addition, the students who were unable to read questions because of their reading levels were able to be included in the sample.

At the completion of the testing session, the teachers collected the folders. The testing session lasted approximately 60 minutes.

Analysis of Data

To examine the relationship of the responses of behavior disordered adolescents and normal adolescents, a factorial analysis was performed on each of the instruments. This procedure allowed an analysis of the differences obtained between normal adolescents and behavior disordered adolescents, male and female, and 13 and 15 year old adolescents. It was felt that handling the analysis in terms of three univariate procedures as opposed to one multivariate (considering all three dependent variables together) would yield the most interpretable results.

In addition, to investigate the interrelationship of the dependent variables a series of correlations were performed. These correlations consisted of 1) the M-F scale versus the male stereotyping questionnaire; 2) the M-F scale versus the female stereotyping questionnaire; and 3) the male stereotyping questionnaire versus the female stereotyping questionnaire. The above correlations were performed for different groupings of the sample. This allowed for intra-sample examination.

Responses to both instruments were coded so that a higher score represented a greater proportion of the trait being measured. For the M-F scale, two sets of items were identified; one set represented masculine traits and the other set represented feminine traits. Each item was responded to by marking true or false. If a male subject responded true to an item designated as representing masculinity, he received one point. If a male subject responded false to an item designated as representing femininity, he received one point. If a male subject responded false to an item representing masculinity or true to an item representing femininity, he received no credit. For females, the coding was reversed.

For both stereotyping stimuli, items were coded so that a higher score represented more stereotyping. Two sets of items were again identified: male stereotypes and female stereotypes. For the male stereotyping instrument, items representing male stereotypes were credited with the number circled on the instrument. The scale was reversed for the items representing female stereotypes. When the stimulus was the female stereotyping instrument, the procedure was reversed.

RESULTS

The first research objective was to compare behavior disordered adolescents and normal adolescents for masculinity-femininity with regard to age and sex. The M-F scale of the MMPI was used to assess the degree of masculinity and femininity. A factorial analysis of variance was used to investigate the responses for age, sex and group. This analysis was the only one which produced a significant interaction. This interaction was between groups and sex and was symmetrical in nature ($p < .01$). The degree of masculinity-femininity was significantly influenced by whether the individual was a member of the behavior disordered group or the normal group. Inspection of the means presented in Table 1 reveals that the interaction effect is such that behavior disordered males see themselves as less masculine than normal males. The direction is reversed when we look at behavior disordered females. In this instance, behavior disordered females see themselves as more feminine than normal females. Figure 2 pictorially depicts this relationship.

The second research objective stated that behavior disordered and normal adolescents would be compared for acceptance of sex-role stereotyping with regard to age and sex. As mentioned previously, this instrument was administered twice, once for how males were perceived and once for how females were perceived. The results of these

analyses are summarized in Tables 3 and 4. As can be noted from these tables, there exists a significant difference between behavior disordered and normal adolescents for both stimuli. Regardless of which stereotyping stimulus was used (male or female) normal subjects exhibited a higher degree of stereotyping than did behavior disordered subjects. (For male stimulus, $BD=119.61$, Normal = 125.25 , $p < .05$; for female stimulus, $BD = 115.02$, Normal = 124.07 , $p < .001$).

While there were no other significant differences when the stimulus was male stereotyping, there were significant differences for main effects of sex ($p < .01$) and age ($p < .05$) when the stimulus was female stereotyping. Concerning sex of the subject, males scored higher in stereotyping than females. For age, 13 year olds exhibited more stereotyping than 15 year olds. For this stimulus, while all three main effects were found to be significant, no interaction effects were noted. The lack of an interaction between group, sex and age would seem to indicate that these variables are mutually exclusive.

The last research objective stated that masculinity-femininity and acceptance of sex-role stereotyping would be examined to determine if any relationship existed for both groups with regard to age and sex. Table 5 represents correlations between Instrument I and II (male stereotyping and female stereotyping), Instruments I and III (male stereotyping versus the M-F scale), and Instruments II and III (female stereotyping versus the M-F scale). For the various groupings, five of the ten possible correlations proved to be significant when the male stereotyping instrument was correlated with the female stereotyping instrument. However, when each of these two instruments were correlated with the M-F scale, the absolute values as well as

number of significant correlations dropped drastically. For example, the correlations of Instrument I with Instrument III yielded only one significant correlation ($p < .05$). Specifically pertaining to the third research objective are the last four correlations in Table 5. These correlations consider Instrument I versus Instrument III and Instrument II versus Instrument III for the total behavior disordered sample and for the total normal sample. Instrument I versus Instrument III yielded extremely low correlations for both groups indicating no relationship exists between responses on the male stereotyping questionnaire and how one perceives his or her masculinity or femininity. Responses to the female stereotyping questionnaire and how one perceives his or her masculinity or femininity were somewhat higher but only yielded significance for the normal group ($< .01$).

Discussion

The significant interaction between group and sex was such that the degree of masculinity or femininity was significantly influenced by whether the individual was a member of the behavior disordered group or the normal group. Behavior disordered males see themselves as less masculine than normal males. However, behavior disordered females see themselves as more feminine than normal females.

This relationship was previously hypothesized by Gray (1957) and Webb (1963). In both studies, as in the present study, maladjusted girls scored significantly higher in femininity than normal girls. Gray and Webb did not find that behavior disordered males scored significantly lower than normal males. Vroegh (1968), however, did find that the more adjusted males scored significantly higher in masculinity.

The higher scores of the normal group (more stereotyping) on both stereotyping questionnaires is an interesting and new finding. This significant difference may be explained, in part, by the awareness of, or stress on, human relations found in special classes. A great deal of the curricula is devoted, both directly and indirectly, to making the children more aware of feelings. Much time is spent on teaching the children to cope with their own feelings as well as the feelings of others. A major focus of the special education curricula is also the building of self-concepts. This, too, is often accomplished in many indirect ways. Maier, in discussing Erikson's theory, suggests that "as children achieve greater mobility, refine their perceptions, improve their memory, and begin to achieve neurological and social integration, their ego will begin to be strengthened (Maier, 1969)." Broverman et al. (1972) concluded that the perceptions of different roles and demands affected women's self-concepts. Feminine traits are most often negatively valued by both sexes.

Since women's roles are in a state of flux, it can be assumed that there will be less definitive ideas and judgments about their roles in society. The male role is not undergoing the same changes. Therefore, the stereotypes and views concerning the male role would remain steadier and more consistent among the subjects. The consistency concerning the male role would account for the lack of any significant differences for the variables of age and sex on the masculine stereotyping questionnaire. The changing of ideas and judgments concerning the female role in society would account for the significant differences found on the feminine stereotyping questionnaire. The variability and lack of consistency in social roles has been pointed up in Heilbrun's (1963)

study. Many women found the social role necessary for achievement in college to be inconsistent with their feminine role. The lack of consistency led to more confusion among college women especially.

The finding that males significantly stereotyped females more than females stereotyped females is again consistent with the work of Brown (1957). His finding that girls were more variable in their sex-role preference is born out in the present investigation. Females showed less stereotyping, hence more variability, than males. There were no significant differences between males and females on the male stereotyping questionnaire. This finding can again be explained by the fact that men's roles still remain relatively rigid and are so viewed by males as well as females.

For an explanation of the differences that exists between 13 and 15 year olds, it is again helpful to look at some earlier studies. Hartley and Hardesty (1964) indicated a trend showing that with age, there was more change for female attributes. Hence, it can be expected that the older the child, the more variability and less stereotyping there will be.

What do these results mean to educators and practitioners? How can these findings be applied to the educational system? What steps need to be taken to apply these findings to the educational system?

As has been noted previously, many more male children are considered emotionally maladjusted than are female. According to Becker (1952), schools are generally considered to be feminine-oriented places where traditional feminine behavior is encouraged for all children. Brown (1958) and Hartley (1959) experimentally demonstrated that there were greater pressures on the male child. Glidewell and

Swallow (1968) indicated that the incidence of maladjustment is high for young males. This rate decreases as the male approaches adulthood. However, it increases for females. Since college has traditionally been considered a male domicile by some, the conclusion of sex-roles for females found by Heilbrun (1963) may account for this reversal in incidence rates. The school program would then appear to need restructuring. Girls and boys need to have the same educational opportunities. Girls have long achieved ahead of boys in the early years of school. "In the light of social expectations about women, ...the surprise is that little girls don't get the message that they are supposed to be stupid until they get into high school... (Weisstein, 1969, p. 20)."

Part of the school program for children with behavior disorders includes an emphasis on socialization skills and relationships with others. The lack of emphasis the regular public school classes have put on this aspect of education and growth, accounts, in part, for the higher scores the normal sample obtained with regards to stereotyping. The normal adolescents are conditioned to view people in sets, whereas the behavior disordered sample are learning to break out of this set. Much cross-cultural research has shown that there are very few, if any, absolute personality differences between men and women. Many of the characteristics that classify individuals as masculine or feminine appear to differentiate both the males and females in one culture from those in another (Gornick and Morgan, 1971). Therefore, the differences are cultural and not inherent. Girls' behaviors typically disturb adults less than those of boys'. Bardwick and Douvan observe "...if the socialization demands made upon boys and

girls were actually the same, girls would be in a better position to cope with the world than are boys (p. 148)."

Another step would be to eliminate from the public schools the materials that serve to perpetrate the sex stereotypes. Analyses have been done depicting the number of sex-role stereotypes being carried in the basal reading series'. Women are still shown in the 'housewife-mother-wife' role while men are shown in the 'breadwinning' role. Children cannot be expected to eliminate stereotypes when they are constantly being bombarded with material that reinforces the stereotyping.

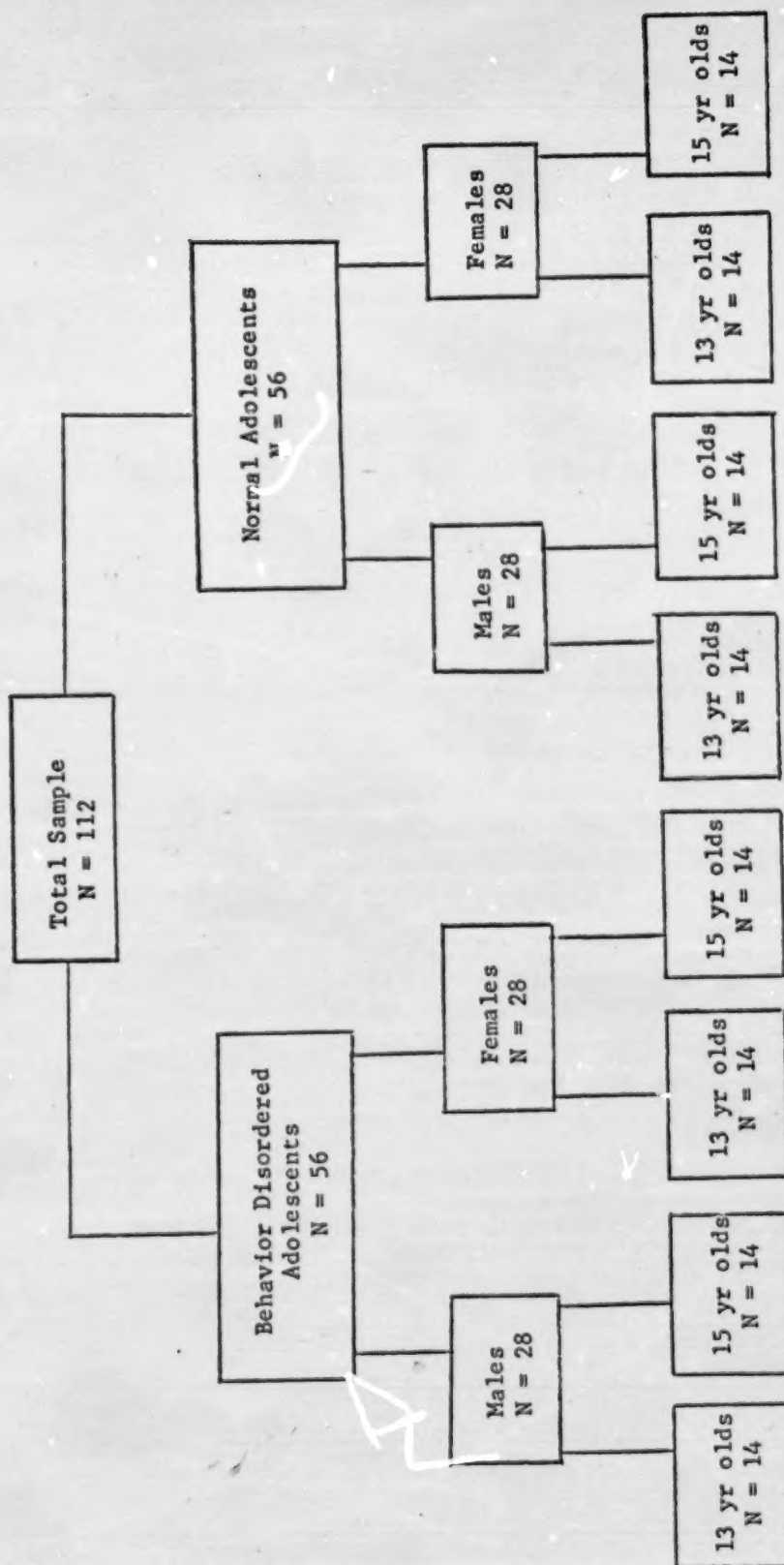


Figure 1
Sample Distribution

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations of
Responses by Group, Sex and Age

Source	n	Masculine Stereotyping		Feminine Stereotyping		M-F Scale	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total Sample	112	122.43	12.86	119.54	13.62	23.33	4.86
BD Group	56	119.61	13.54	115.02	12.96	22.38	4.10
Normal	56	125.25	11.58	124.07	12.83	22.29	5.56
Total Males	56	124.30	11.13	123.14	14.48	23.89	4.74
BD Males	28	121.43	11.14	117.64	13.91	22.61	4.91
Normal Males	28	127.18	10.53	128.64	13.08	25.18	4.28
Total Females	56	120.55	14.23	115.95	11.76	20.77	4.50
BD Females	28	117.79	15.58	112.39	11.60	22.14	3.16
Normal Females	28	123.32	12.43	119.50	10.99	19.39	5.23
Total 13 yr. olds	56	122.20	12.92	121.89	13.73	22.54	4.30
BD 13 yr. olds	28	118.39	12.78	118.04	14.22	21.93	3.92
Normal 13 yr. olds	28	126.00	12.11	125.75	12.29	23.14	4.64

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Responses
by Group, Sex and Age - Continued

Source	n	Masculine		Feminine		M-F	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Scale	S.D.
Total 15 yr. olds	56	122.66	12.91	117.20	13.22	22.13	5.40
BD 15 yr. olds	28	120.82	14.40	112.00	11.02	22.82	4.30
Normal 15 yr. olds	28	124.50	11.18	122.39	13.36	21.43	6.32

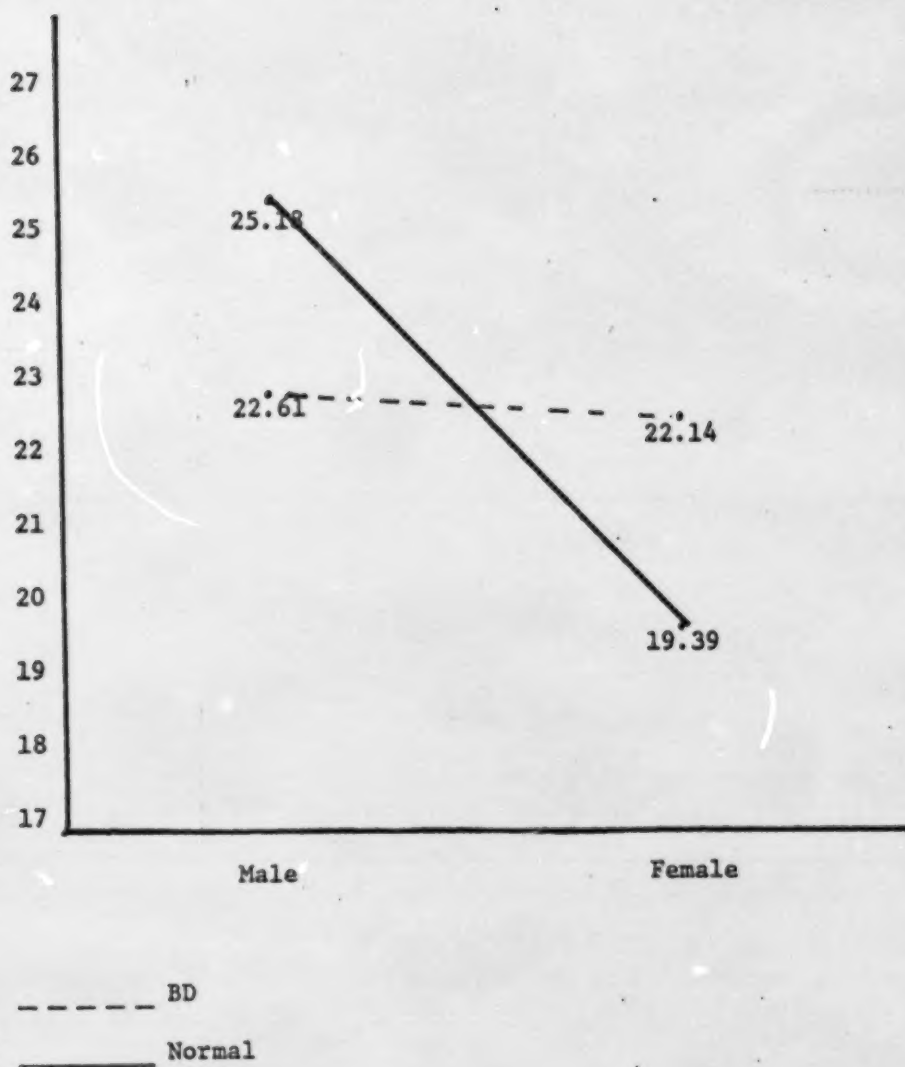


Figure 2

Interaction of Group and Sex on M-F Scale

TABLE 2
Analysis of Variance:
Masculinity-Femininity Scale

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Group (A)	1	.22	.22	< 1
Sex (B)	1	273.44	273.44	13.792**
Age (C)	1	4.72	4.72	< 1
A X B	1	198.22	198.22	9.998*
A X C	1	47.58	47.58	2.40
B X C	1	3.22	3.22	< 1
A X B X C	1	35.44	35.44	1.787
Error	104	2061.93	19.83	

* $p < .01$.

** $p < .001$.

TABLE 3

Analysis of Variance: Male
Stereotyping Questionnaire

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Group (A)	1	891.57	891.57	5.542*
Sex (B)	1	393.75	393.75	2.448
Age (C)	1	6.04	6.04	< 1
A X B	1	.32	.32	< 1
A X C	1	108.04	108.04	< 1
B X C	1	185.14	185.14	1.151
A X B X C	1	36.57	36.57	< 1
Error	104	16730.00	160.87	

* $p < .05$.

TABLE 4
Analysis of Variance: Female
Stereotyping Questionnaire

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Group (A)	1	2295.08	2295.08	15.120***
Sex (B)	1	1450.08	1450.08	9.553**
Age (C)	1	617.58	617.58	4.069*
A X B	1	106.08	106.08	< 1
A X C	1	50.22	50.22	< 1
B X C	1	130.72	130.72	< 1
A X B X C	1	157.94	157.94	1.041
Error	104	15786.07	151.79	

* $p < .05$.
 ** $p < .01$.
 *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 5
Intercorrelations Between
Dependent Variables

	n	Instrument 1 ¹ vs. 2 ²	Instrument 1 vs. 3 ³	Instrument 2 vs. 3
BD Males	18	.31	.32*	.15
BD Females	28	.04	-.18	.31
Normal Males	28	.56**	.04	.07
Normal Females	28	.21	.19	.35*
BD 13 yr. olds	28	.09	.08	.20
BD 15 yr. olds	28	.35*	.08	.32*
Normal 13 yr. olds	28	.45**	.23	.41*
Normal 15 yr. olds	28	.37*	.15	.30
BD Total Sample	56	.18	.09	.22
Normal Total Sample	56	.41**	.19	.35**

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

¹Instrument 1 = male stereotyping

²Instrument 2 = female stereotyping

³Instrument 3 = M-F scale

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